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ABSTRACT

It is necessary to recognize the mutual interaction betweeen theory and application when one is considering the significance of linguistics for language teaching. The model proposed is based on one developed by Roulet; it assumes that various fields contribute to language teaching. Categories from this model are used to examine possible contributions of linguistics to language teaching and to look for evidence of them in the teaching process. The categories are the following: (1) sociolinguistic theory, which tends to be problem-oriented in its application; (2) sociolinguistic situations, which lead to definition of objectives in terms of functions or needs; (3) sociolinguistic description, which leads teachers to more awareness of different cultural norms; (4) linguistic theory and description of languages, which have changed the view of language learning from habit acquisition to creative act; (5) psycholinguistic theory, which emphasizes the importance of empirical evidence; and (6) descriptions of learning strategies and models of performance. Under the latter category, the contributions of the audiolingual method are reviewed, and the eclecticism evident in current language teaching is noted. Finally, several new methods are noted: Community Counseling Learning, Rapid Acquisition, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, and Total Physical Response. (AMH)

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APPLIED LINGUISTICS: THE USE OF LINGUISTICS IN ESL

by

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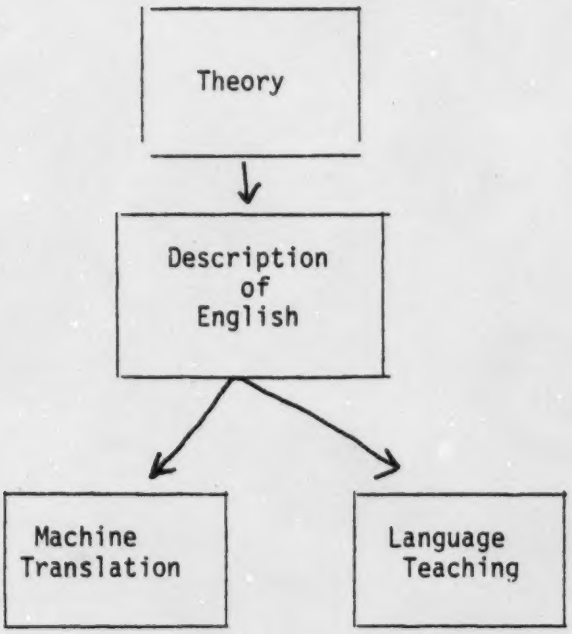
An exhaustive bibliography on the topic of this paper would fill pages for linguists have written extensively on the subject. They have also disagreed extensively, from Newmark's "the transformationist's analysis of verb phrase constructions, beginning with Chomsky's simple C(M) (have+en) (be+ing) V formula, brings startling simplicity and clarity to our understanding of the grammatical structure of a number of discontinuous and elliptical verb constructions; transformational grammar seems to offer suggestions neatly and precisely for what a program teaching English verb structure would have to include. (1970:213)" to Chomsky's own "frankly, I am rather sceptical about the significance, for the teaching of languages, of such insights and understanding as have been attained in linguistics or psychology. (1966:43)" and he adds later "It is the language teacher himself who must validate or refute any specific proposal (1966:45)." Who is right? In a sense, that is what this paper is about.

If by applied linguistics, we mean the use linguists put their knowledge to in order to get things done in the real world, it is immediately clear that applied linguistics means a lot more than merely language teaching (Corder, 1975; Roulet, 1975; Spolsky, 1978). It is generally recognized that translation is one aspect of applied linguistics but in this context less frequently pointed out that translation existed centuries before linguistics, and, in fact, provided a powerful impetus for the development of the discipline of linguistics in the United States. Missionaries, in groups like the Wycliffe Bible Translators and the Summer Institute of Linguistics, were dedicated to spreading the Word of God by translating the gospels into primarily unwritten languages. They found that they made awkward mistakes. To give but one example: many languages have inclusive <u>we</u> ('all of us guys') and exclusive <u>we</u> ('my friend and I but not you guys'), and if you have never run into them before, the inclusive/

exclusive feature of the first person plural pronoun is far from immediately apparent. So it is not surprising that the missionaries inadvertantly translated "Our Father" with exclusive we, and subsequently discovered to their horror the Aymara Indians' interpretation of a God for white folk only, which notion was the last on earth they had intended. Accordingly, scholars like Kenneth Pike of the Summer Institute of Linguistics in his Phonemics: A Technique for Reducing Languages to Writing, (1947) Eugene Nida of the American Bible Society in his Morphology: the Descriptive Analysis of Words (1949), and later H.A. Gleason of the Hartford Seminary Foundation in An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics (1955) were genuinely concerned with what came to be known as "discovery procedures," the analysis of unknown and unwritten languages.

One result of the practical bent of anthropologists and missionaries was that it inadvertantly developed techniques for language learning through the focus on discovery procedures, such as substitution drills. Partially, I suspect, the audio-lingual method, also known, albeit erroneously, as the linguistic method, was a historical accident, created in war time by linguists who turned to their established procedures for getting things done. The point I am making here is that there is very much a two way street between theory and application, between translation and linguistics and language learning and that problems in the real world do touch and test the development of theory. Linguistics as we know it today would never have existed if people had not tried to do things with language, all the way back to Panini. We clearly have to reject a model like the following as inaccurate and misleading, where the direction of influence is in one direction only:



(Roulet, 1972:71)

There are two ways of answering the question of the significance of linguistics for language teaching. One is to argue from theory to speculative claims in a logico-deductive manner as Newmark does. The evidence for his "startling simplicity and clarity" claim is his own expert opinion. This is by far the most common approach, and the literature is replete with grand claims of what linguistics can achieve for the language learner. Furthermore, these claims cannot be dismissed on the grounds that there is no evidence to support them for they are made by men of stature and experience with language teaching, like Fries (1945), Lado (1957), Moulton (1966), Allen and Corder (1975) to pick three classics and one more recent work.

The other way is of course to argue from data and to document the use of linguistic insights and knowledge in the classroom. We could ask the teachers of ESL what they find helpful from their training in linguistics and what they actually use in the classroom. Such data will share the weakness of all self report data and should therefore be augmented by actual classroom observation

where the observer especially watches for any evidence of the use of linguistic knowledge. One can examine syllabi and textbooks for similar evidence as well as consider the claims in recent journal articles with a practical bent; the latter also a type of self report data. One might consider examining the content of teacher training courses, but on second thought I think one will find merely that the director considered such content important but not whether the teachers in fact would ever use such knowledge.

I have attempted a rather cursory investigation of this kind. Our English Language Institute, modelled after the Michigan ELI, teaches English to some 200 students with some twenty-five instructors (the exact figures vary from term to term). Sixteen instructors returned questionnaire responses in which they (most of them/are Teaching Assistants in the Department of Linguistics) were asked to rate their course work on a scale from 1-10 in usefulness for teaching purposes. I interviewed seven TA's who were students in a supervision seminar. I observed classes and immediately found an interesting research problem.

In none of the three grammar classes I observed was there any indication that the instructors had any linguistics training beyond a good public schools ninth grade class with Warriner (1973), any overt, clear, solid, unmistakeable evidence that the teacher was a linguist in the making. I confess that this fact surprised me. One of the instructors was a young man in the throes of his doctoral linguistic comprehensive exams, which is possibly the period in one's life of the most intense consciousness of matters linguistic. In an in-depth interview following my observation of his class, he made the following points: 1) he didn't use technical linguistics terms in the class room (beyond 'indirect/direct object focus in active/passive transformation') for the simple reason that the students would not understand it. (This attitude permeates the instructors' thinking in general.) 2) He found his knowledge of syntax

very useful in selecting teaching points, i.e. what to teach and what to ignore about the passive construction as well as setting up and presenting the construction in model sentences on the board and in the explanations. 3) He thought the text book exercises awful and that the best approach to teaching the passive is not through transformations of formal aspects of the active voice.

In essence, what we have here are cognitive and attitudinal influences of linguistics on the instructor which are not observable but nevertheless of extreme importance. It is a situation similar to establishing avoidance behavior in sociolinguistics, a very difficult problem. To compound the difficulty, we have an aspect of Labov's "observer's paradox." The young man had previously been admonished to beware of too much teacher talk by his regular supervisor, and we cannot exclude the possibility that he monitored carefully any linguistics jargon in my presence. Participant-observation is not a sufficient approach to data collection in problem areas which are so cognitively oriented as linguistics and teaching.

A third point should be made. It is surprising after twelve years of class room observation in the ELI that I should be surprised. I take linguistics for granted and have just never looked for it, so to speak. The lack of its manifest presence,[1] when I was specifically looking, surprised me. This fact suggests a third way for answering our question about the significance of linguistics for language teaching, namely putting the two approaches together and using theory to guide our looking for supporting data, a common enough approach in experimental research. The model I propose using is that of Roulet's:

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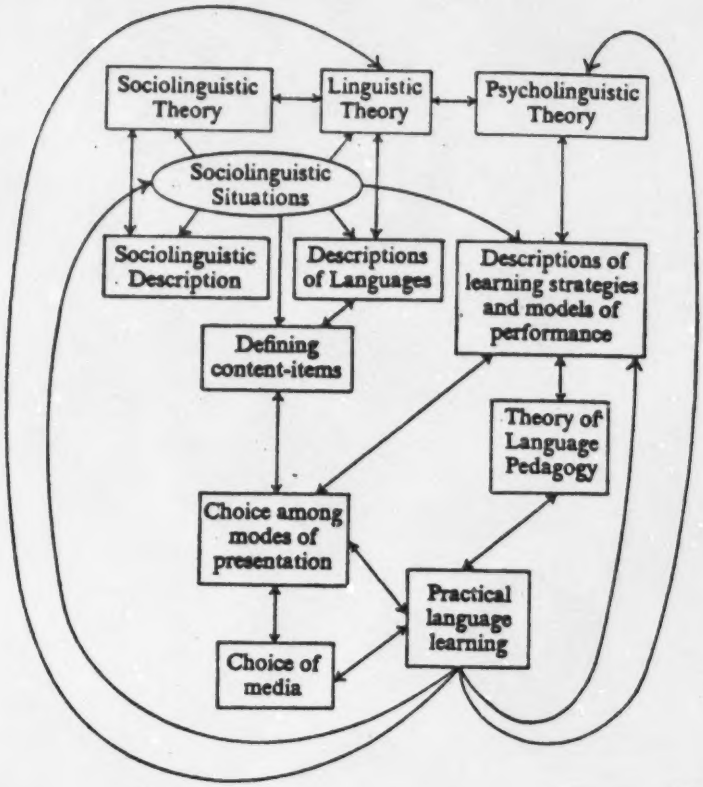
[1]Had I gone to a pronunciation class, I would have found lots of evidence of phonetics.



(Roulet, 1975:83)

His major point, which others have made before him (Spolsky, 1969), is that various fields besides theoretical linguistics contribute to language teaching and that one needs to understand the processes of their interrelationship as well. I propose to use Roulet's categories as a check list for examining the possible contributions to language teaching we might find from linguistics in this broad sense of the word and then look for evidence that they occur somewhere in the teaching process.

Sociolinguistic Theory

This topic might usefully be divided into sociology of language and sociolinguistics. The sociology of language deals with language problems and language treatments at the national level as problems arise within and between ethnic

and national groups in contact and competition. Choice of national language and of writing system, language standardization, bilingual education, language maintenance and shift efforts are all examples of language problems. Naturally ESL is affected by the choice of teaching Nigerian children to read in English, in choosing to teach Chicano children to read in Spanish and in English, but it is more at a level of global understanding of contextual means and constraints than at a direct class room level of application.

Sociolinguistics refers to an approach to description of language which takes into account the social features of a far from ideal hearer/speaker and seeks to account for the rules of linguistic variability, be it social, regional, cultural, gender, register or stylistic variation. (Labov has made the claim that the term "Sociolinguistics" is tautological since all linguistics need to do this.) Sociolinguistics is probably the area which has most influenced language teaching developments within the last ten years, especially through its work with sociolinguistic description on speech acts, pragmatics, discourse analysis and cross-cultural communication. There is no one sociolinguistic theory, and sociolinguists use notions and concepts from several disciplines, primarily from anthropology, linguistics and sociology. The work of Hymes, Labov, and Bernstein may serve as representative examples. Hymes' notion of "communicative competence" which draws on key concepts in ethnography has more than any other theoretical model influenced a new direction in language teaching (see below). Labov's work on Black English (1969) helped legitimize this dialect with formal descriptions of its rule-governed behavior and disspel ideas of sloppy, lazy speech. The interest in SESD (Standard English as a Second Dialect), as this special interest group is known in TESOL, and the many resultant publications (Baratz and Shuy, 1969; Dillard, 1972; Fasold and Shuy, 1970; Kochman, 1972; Feigenbaum, 1970;

Mitchell-Kernan, 1971; Wolfram, 1969, 1974; Wolfram and Clarke, 1971) peaked in the late sixties and early seventies and at present form a less viable part of ESL. But the interest is bound to return because the basic problems are still with us, and as the basic groundwork was done in sociolinguistics, I am reasonably certain (I speak as a former SESD chairman) that ESL, or TESOL rather, will continue to be its spiritual and organizational home, an example of applied linguistics at its very best.

The attempts to explain, at a theoretical level, the educational failure of lower class and minority children have been many and varied from Jensen's genetic model (1969) through cultural deprivation (Bereiter and Engelmann, 1966) to cultural differences (Abrahams and Troike, 1972; Burger, 1971; Cazden, 1972; Saville-Troike, 1976; Spolsky, 1972; Trueba, 1979). Much of the linguistic work on Black English was motivated exactly by the linguistic ignorance of the psychologists who wrote about the language of black children. Another series of theory building which has marginally found its way into ESL but nevertheless has much influenced the thinking of sociolinguists is that of the British sociologist Basil Bernstein (1971, 1972, 1973). He posits the notions of restricted and elaborated code of which the latter is crucial for school success. Working class children through their socialization in position oriented families have limited access to an elaborated code and so do poorly in school. This is an enormous simplification of his very elaborate argument but is nevertheless the gist of the matter. Bernstein has been widely misunderstood in the United States where his work has been totally inappropriately applied to Black children.

We see then that the use of sociolinguistic theory tends to be problem oriented in its applications, frequently dealing with the language learning

difficulties children from other than mainstream groups experience in our schools.

Sociolinguistic situations

Sociolinguistic situations refer to the real world situation in which the students are going to use their English and so brings up the question of defining the objectives of language teaching in terms of the functions of these needs. English for Special Purposes and English for Science and Technology have been a major development during the last decade in ESL. (Lackstrom et al. 1970; Richards, 1976; Selinker et al. 1972)

Sociolinguistic Description

This is the area where I think the most interesting work has been done in ESL during the last ten years, but then that may be a biased opinion. Still, my guess is that twenty years from now, when the Silent Way and Suggestopedia are gone, we will still use the sociolinguistic descriptions of speech acts, discourse, and cross-cultural communication which now surface in our journals.

Dell Hymes, the anthropological linguist, has suggested that linguistic competence is not sufficient for an adequate description of language which must also take into account when, how and to whom it is appropriate to speak, that is a "communicative competence" (Hymes, 1972, 1974) or in Grimshaw's terms "the systemic sets of social interactional rules" (1973:109). More than any other single concept, the notion of communicative competence has influenced our thinking about teaching ESL. There are two major approaches within ESL at present, and one of them is a communicative approach to language teaching (Brumfit and Johnson, 1981; Canale and Swain, 1979; Candlin, 1975; Munby, 1978;

Roulet et Holec, 1976; Widdowson, 1978; Wilkins, 1976). Such an approach argues that the focus of language teaching should be on language use, rather than form although most scholars consider linguistic competence to be part of communicative competence. The discrete units or teaching points of a lesson, syllabus, or textbook then cease being grammatical patterns, sequenced in an orderly manner, and instead become speech acts[1] or in Wilkins' terms notions and functions. Not that there is total agreement on this manner of organizing textbooks; in one of the latest issues of Applied Linguistics, (1981, II:1) both Brumfit and I argue against a purely functional approach in syllabus construction where the main argument is, I think, that language forms are generative while functions are not. One can of course, (and I would add should) combine form and function in one's teaching.

Johnson and Morrow's Communicate (1978) and Approaches (1979) were some the first textbooks to adhere to a functional approach. Today it is a publisher's darling. A number of journal articles tackle the problem of speech act description (Borkin & Reinhart, 1978; Carrell & Konneker, 1981; Ervin-Tripp, 1976; Levinson, 1980; Rintell, 1979; Scarcella, 1979; Walters, 1979; Wolfson, 1981).

And interestingly enough, sociolinguistics rated very high, right up with phonetics, on the questionnaire the ELI instructors had been asked to answer about the usefulness of linguistics for language teaching. All of them singled out speech act theory especially as helpful. I think this somewhat, to me at

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[1] Speech act is a difficult concept to define and Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) have written books to do so. Hymes defines a speech act, like a joke, as the minimal term of the set speech event, a conversation, and speech situation, a party (1972:56). Not that teaching speech acts is new. Kelley (1969) discusses the teaching of phrases of social life, like courting, social calls and quarreling, during the Renaissance. Shakespeare even satirized lessons from Florio. There is very little new in language teaching, except maybe the Silent Way.

least, surprising response reflects the fact that although our cultural rules and ways of doing things permeate our life, we are rarely aware of those rules until they are broken. It is difficult to talk about and teach cultural rules without any training. Several instructors commented that such study had given them a way of systematically organizing the data and a metalanguage -- which they avoided using in the classroom -- to think about such phenomena. One instructor added that such understanding also allowed her to know exactly what questions to ask in the class room in order to bring out a kind of cultural contrastive analysis of speech acts. A compliment in Japanese is not necessarily one in English (Wolfson, 1981), and students need to be made aware of that.

Finally, ESL teachers are sensitive to their students as human beings. In the words of one instructor: "Sociolinguistics has helped me become aware of different cultural norms and possible differences, perhaps more importantly. ... It helps in dealing with the students on a personal level."

Linguistic Theory and Descriptions of Languages

Back in 1969, Wardhough wrote a TESOL State of the Art paper in which he outlined the tenets of transformational-generative grammar and commented on the insights into language it gave. He concluded: "However, neither the grammar nor existing descriptions give teachers any way of teaching these insights nor do they provide any way of assigning a truth value to the insights on an absolute scale, apparent claims to the contrary notwithstanding" (1969:12). I think Wardhaugh's remark still stands. The most intelligent statement of the value of TG grammar for language teaching was Robin Lakoff's "Transformational Grammar and Language Teaching" (1969) and she has since retracted her words, saying she was simply mistaken. (1974) Rutherford's Modern English (1968), for which

claims were made that it followed a TG approach, in its second edition reflects a change toward more traditional grammar. In fact, we tend to find the same absence of overt linguistics in textbooks as I found in class room observation. Furey found in an analysis of the grammatical rules and explanations very little difference in textbooks of respectively audio-lingual, direct method, TGG, and eclectic orientation. Presumably this is so, she says, because of the pedagogical necessity of simplifications of rules (1972).

There are of course other linguistic theories than TG grammar, such as case grammar (Nilsen, 1971) and tagmemics (Paulston, 1970) which are used for ESL purposes. The trouble is that few ESL teachers today are trained in structural linguistics, which I maintain is much more suitable for pedagogical purposes. In fact, what happens is that the eclectic approach exemplified by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) (and Quirk, Greenbaum, Svartvik and Leech 1972) is the generally prevailing approach in language teaching.

My view that theoretical linguistics has lacked any influence on language teaching during the last decade needs to be modified. Chomsky undeniably changed the climate of linguistic thought in the United States. Chomsky's attack of language acquisition as habit formation has had enormous consequences on our thinking about language teaching. Language learning as a creative act is the basic foundation of most present day ESL methods and one source for our interest in error analysis.

The way teachers deal with errors in the classroom is closely influenced by their linguistic knowledge. Experienced teachers tend to correct what they judge to be performance errors with a reference to the rule and so elicit the correction from the student himself while a competence error repeated by several students will bring on a modelling by the teacher of the grammatical

pattern, sometimes in a contrast to other familiar patterns, and a grammatical explanation of its function. I saw this repeated several times in my class observations. Thinking on one's feet and being able to come up with good example sentences is in fact what one instructor cites as the major benefit of her syntax course. Most instructors agree that syntax, standard theory, is too abstract to be of much use in the classroom but they cite the insight into patterns of English, into knowing what is rulegoverned behavior and what needs to be memorized, into what structures are similar and different, into knowing what goes together as very useful in their teaching. One of them writes: "Since I've studied linguistics I've become more convinced of the notion that language has a definite structure/system, which means I now no longer feel quite so helpless about teaching grammar." The last point is important. It became very clear in the interviews that teachers dislike intensely to feel ignorant or uncertain about what they are teaching and that they worry about their explanations and presentation of teaching points. The study of linguistics brings them confidence and security, and they are very conscious about that relationship.

The instructors are unanimous in their opinion that phonetics is most useful; it is the only coursework that ranks higher than sociolinguistics. The reason is simple: "I understand how the sounds are articulated and can tell the students." It also develops their ear so they can hear and know what the students do wrong. It is hardly a recent development in linguistics; classic articulatory Eliza Doolittle period. They find basic concepts in phonemics useful but most reject generative phonology. Surprisingly, many also reject grammatical analysis, morphology, and field methods and less surprisingly, historical linguistics and Montague grammar. They all consider linguistic struc-

tures of English, in which they use Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), as basically boring but nevertheless essential.

We see then that even if I have doubt about the usefulness of present day linguistics for language teaching, our students do not. Even if they consider only two courses in linguistic theory, phonetics and English grammar, as core courses, they insist that the study of syntax brings them a Weltanschauung, a worldview of language which they find eminently useful.

Defining Content Items

By this term, Roulet means the selection and sequencing of language materials for the curriculum or textbook. Structural linguists gave a lot of thought and energy to the optimum selection and sequencing of language items, but these days this is an unfashionable topic. The occasional argument is rather whether one should teach function before form, and of course there is the notional-functional[1] argument that syllabi should be organized on the basis of communicative functions rather than on grammatical patterns. As Canale and Swain (1979:58) point out, there are no empirical data on the relative effectiveness or ineffectiveness of either approach.

Psycholinguistic Theory

In 1969 Wardhaugh predicted that cognitive psychology would influence language teaching for many years to come and thus far his prediction holds. Ausubel (1968) is still frequently cited in footnotes, everyone insists language learning must be meaningful, the notion of language learning as habit formation is dismissed, and there seems to be a general consensus that gram-

[1]Actually, I have never seen a clear definition of what notion means and most writers in fact settle for functions which I take to be similar to speech acts, getting things done with words.

matical rules and explanations are beneficial for adults.

Besides cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics (Clark and Clark, 1978; Dato, 1975; Taylor, 1976; Slobin, 1971) and neurolinguistics (Albert and Obler, 1978; Lenneberg and Lenneberg, 1975; Rieber, 1976) are topics of recent interest. Especially in regard to neurolinguistics, caution is needed in drawing implications for the classroom. At this point I think it is safe to say that the evidence (from aphasia, split brain operations, dichotic listening tests, etc.) indicates that individuals have different ways of learning for which there may be a biological foundation. But that was known before. I find the readings in neurolinguistics the most interesting in the language learning field today. But I worry about premature applications, and I react against the fads which claim to draw on neurolinguistics.

In psycholinguistics, there has been much L_2 acquisition research during the last decade. Douglas Brown, in an editorial in Language Learning in 1974, comments on the "new wave" of research: "for perhaps the first time in history, L_2 research is characterized by a rigorous empirical approach coupled with cautious rationalism" (1974:v-vi) and goes on to claim that "the results of current L_2 research will indeed have a great impact on shaping a new method" (1974:v-vi). This hasn't happened, and it is still too early to see what the implications will be.

It is difficult to single out any specific studies, but the best place to begin is probably with Roger Brown's A First Language. (1973) Along with his basic finding that "there is an approximately invariant order to acquisition for the 14 morphemes we have studied, and behind this invariance lies not modeling frequency but semantic and grammatical complexity" (p. 379) (a finding supported by the L_2 studies), he also carefully investigates the psychological

reality of TG transformational rules, a notion he is forced to reject as invalid. Instead he posits the concept of semantic saliency, a notion which may hold direct implications for language teaching..

Whatever the implications for language teaching which we will eventually draw from this "new wave" of L_2 acquisition research, Brown is right in pointing out a major significance, the turning to empirical evidence rather than unsubstantiated claims and counterclaims.

The greatest surprise of the questionnaire responses were to be found in the TA's reaction to psycholinguistic theory. They held it of marginal utility. I will quote one instructor at length.

> Nothing very directly applicable; but by increasing my knowledge of the mental processes involved in language use (well, at least of people's theories about them), it's increased my. . .my what? I think this is a case where I have to resort to a general "the more I know about language and language learning, the better teacher I'll be." The most pertinent research (in reading, L_1 acquisition, etc.) seems better at pointing out what variables are probably insignificant than at telling us which ones are important.

I think this attitude reflects the fact that we really don't know how people learn language.

Descriptions of learning strategies and models of performance

Theory of Language Pedagogy

A thorough exploration of these two topics would require a book or two to complete and take us too far afield for the purposes of this paper. The audio-lingual method drew heavily on linguistics in its development. Today that method has been discredited, maybe at times unfairly, as it is blamed for infelicities which Fries certainly never intended. A careful reading of his

Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (1945) will reveal it as sensible a book today as the day it was written.

In today's thinking about language teaching, psychology seems to play a larger part than linguistics. Cognitive code (John Carroll's term) is recognized as a general trend, with its emphasis on meaningful learning and careful analysis of linguistic structures. The cognitive code approach can be considered a reaction against the audiolingual, both from theoretical and practical viewpoints. The approach closely reflects the transformational-generative linguistic school of thought about the nature of language, and it is influenced by cognitive psychologists, critical of stimulus-reinforcement theory, such as Ausubel. (1968) It holds that language is a rule-governed creative system of a universal nature. Language learning must be meaningful, rote-learning should be avoided, and the primary emphasis is on analysis and developing competence in Chomsky's sense of the word. We see the same nice fit between linguistic theory and psychological theory in cognitive code methodology as we once had in the audiolingual method. The trouble with cognitive code is that I know of not one single textbook for beginning students which can be classified as strict cognitive code.

In practical fact, most language teaching specialists are eclectic and so are the textbooks they write. Carroll (1971) holds that there is nothing mutually exclusive in the theories of Skinner and of Lenneberg-Chomsky about language learning but rather that these theories are complementary. This opinion is reflected in the eclectic approach to methodology which is characteristic of most of the methods texts at the technique level. Most of the writers of these texts agree that all four skills--listening, speaking, reading and writing--should be introduced simultaneously without undue postponement

of any one. The importance of writing as a service activity for the other skills is generally recognized and there is considerable interest in controlled composition. No one talks any longer about memorizing long dialogues. Listening comprehension is still poorly understood on a theoretical level, but there is more emphasis on the teaching of that skill. The crucial importance of vocabulary, the ignoring of which was one of the worst faults of the audiolingual approach, is increasingly gaining acceptance.

I think we agree with Chastain that "perhaps too much attention has been given to proper pronunciation," (1976) and we now tend to think that it is more important that the learner can communicate his ideas than that he can practice utterances with perfect pronunciation. The one thing that everyone is absolutely certain about is the necessity to use language for communicative purposes in the classroom. As early as 1968 Oller and Obrecht concluded from an experiment that communicative activity should be a central point of pattern drills from the very first stages of language learning (1968). Savignon's (1971) widely cited dissertation confirmed that beyond doubt. Many bridle at pattern drills, but it is not very important because we agree on the basic principle of meaningful learning for the purpose of communication. And that basic principle is indicative of what may be the most significant trend: our increasing concentration on our students' learning rather than on our teaching. (Oller and Richards, 1973)

In addition to the prevailing eclecticism, several new methods have gained visibility recently in the United States. In alphabetical order they are: Community Counseling Learning, Rapid Acquisition, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, and Total Physical Response. The Monitor Model (1972) maybe should be mentioned here too, but at this point it is a theoretical model of language learning rather than a method for language teaching.

Community Counseling Learning or Community Language Learning (CLL) was developed by Charles A. Curran (1976) from his earlier work in affective psychology. In CLL the students sit in a circle with a tape recorder and talk about whatever interests them. The teacher whose role is seen as a counselor serves as a resource person rather than as a traditional "teacher." At the very beginning stages, the counselor also serves as translator for his clients: the students first utter in their native language, the teacher translates, and the students repeat their own utterances in the L_2. The tape is played back, errors analyzed and the clients copy down whatever structures they need to work on. Adherents of this method tend to be ardent in their fervor as they point out that this method teaches "the whole person" within a supportive community which minimizes the risk-taking held necessary for language learning. Another value of this method lies in the motivational aspect in that students can talk about issues of concern to them (Stevick, 1976, 1980).

Rapid Acquisition is an approach developed by Winitz and Reeds (1973) called Rapid Acquisition of a Foreign Language by Avoidance of Speaking. The authors believe that there is a natural sequence (neurological) in language learning and stress listening comprehension until it is complete before students are allowed to speak. Length of utterance is limited, problem solving through the use of pictures are stressed, and the syllabus is limited to base structures and limited vocabulary.

The Silent Way was developed by Caleb Gattegno (1972) in 1963 but not published here until 1972. In the Silent Way, the teacher uses Cuisiniere rods, a color-coded wall chart for pronunciation, and speaks each new word only once; the responsibility for learning and talking is shifted to the students. Even correction is handled through gestures and mime by the teacher with no

further modeling. Many teachers are enthusiastic about this method, but I have also heard many anecdotes of student rebellion. (Stevick, 1980)

Suggestopedia, a method developed by Georgi Lozanov at the Institute of Suggestology in Sofia, Bulgaria (Lozanov, 1979; Bancroft, 1978) claims to reduce the stress of language learning. Listening and speaking are stressed with emphasis on vocabulary acquistion. The Suggestopedic Cycle begins with review of previously learned material in the target language, followed by introduction of new material. This is followed by a one hour seance during which students listen to the new material against a background of baroque music. The students also do breathing exercises and yoga relaxation techniques which are said to increase concentration and tap the powers of the subconscious. There is also considerable roleplay of real-life situations.

Total Physical Response, developed by James Asher (1969, 1977), also stresses listening comprehension as he believes that if listening and speaking are introduced simultaneously, listening comprehension is much delayed. Basically the method consists of having students listen to commands and then carry them out.

I refrain from commenting on these methods since it is not my opinion which is important but rather the teacher's. As long as teacher and students have confidence that they are in fact learning, and all are happy in the process, I don't think the methods make that much difference.

Conclusion.

In conclusion, we can say that Newmark after all is more right than Chomsky about the significance of linguistics for the teaching of languages. But Chomsky is right too for that influence is not immediately apparent. Linguistics is like our proverbial bottom of the iceberg, mostly invisible, but massively giving

shape and direction to the teaching. It took me several hours of reflection to realize that I had not heard any incorrect grammatical explanation, also an indication of linguistics at work.

Most of all linguistics becomes a worldview. It colours the approach to language, the recognition of problems and the attempts to solutions. Our TF's rejection of a formal approach to the passive, characteristic of a structural approach to linguistics, would once have been branded as mentalism, but reflects what may be the most important contribution of present day linguistics, a different attitude towards language.

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